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ABSTRACT

The scope of Western development service organizations includes acting as employment organizations assuring work experience; educational organizations building skills and knowledge; and nonelitist participatory organizations promoting citizen involvement. The organizations provide the following general kinds of services: (1) training and employment schemes; (2) study services to give higher education students a better understanding of social problems while they serve a local community; (3) social and technical development services to upgrade life in individual communities using volunteer help; and (4) foreign volunteer services to help meet demands for trained manpower. Development programs should be assessed by the degree to which they serve as both cultural and developmental institutions to satisfy basic human needs, improve economic conditions, and provide opportunities for social and political participation. Development services generally evolve from a stage of interagency coexistence and non-cooperation to one of foreign assistance, and finally to an ideal partnership in which mutuality, equality, and reciprocity are stressed between agency and host country. Self-reliance of the host country is particularly important in development cooperation. Requests for foreign personnel by Third World countries will decline as demands rise for programs of two-way opportunity between developing and industrialized nations. (SB)

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Serving Human Needs...

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Charles F. Kettering Foundation

Special Report

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
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With the cooperation of development services in:

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Kenya	Israel	Germany
Nigeria	Malaysia	Netherlands
	Thailand	United Kingdom

Latin America	**North America**
Costa Rica	Canada
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and the United Nations Volunteers

Serving Human Needs...

a study of
the role of development services
and their cooperative relationships

by Irene Pinkau

a multinational project coordinated by the Charles F. Kettering Foundation

About the Author

As director of the Development Services Cooperation Project coordinated by the Charles F. Kettering Foundation, Dr. Irene Pinkau conducted the evaluation of development services and their cooperative relationships summarized in this report. A German citizen, Dr. Pinkau was executive secretary of the National Council of Churches' rural youth work program in Germany for seven years. In 1963, she was appointed to the staff of the newly founded German Volunteer Service, for which she set up recruitment, selection, and training programs. She was given the assignment of director for evaluation and research with the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service (ISVS) in 1966, and in 1970 became director of the North American Regional Office of ISVS. She holds a master's degree in agriculture and a doctoral degree in agricultural management and economics from the University of Stuttgart-Hohenheim. She also has postgraduate degrees in occupational education and public administration.

The complete, three-volume technical report on Dr. Pinkau's study, entitled *Service for Development*, may be ordered through the Charles F. Kettering Foundation, Suite 300, 5335 Far Hills Avenue, Dayton, Ohio 45429. Price: $10.00.

The Charles F. Kettering Foundation is a nonprofit, research-oriented foundation created in 1927. Its scope includes science, elementary and secondary education, urban affairs, and international affairs. The foundation undertakes research on a wide range of issues through program staff specialists, grants, and contracts with outside agencies.

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Preface

Eighteen years have passed since John F. Kennedy announced his proposal for a United States Peace Corps. Although volunteer service is deeply rooted in human history, President Kennedy's idea of a federally-sponsored, large-scale organization of volunteers who would work side-by-side with people in developing nations to further the cause of peace and development was different enough and dramatic enough to draw world attention to itself.

The Peace Corps quickened a modern movement which had already begun (for example, the British Voluntary Service Overseas began in 1958), and the years since 1961 have seen a dramatic increase in similar organizations around the world. Although many, like the Peace Corps, involve relations between industrialized countries of the North and developing countries of the South, others, like the newer U.S. VISTA, concern themselves with solving a country's own internal problems of poverty and unemployment. All such organizations, since they aim at satisfying human needs and stimulating social progress, have become known as "development services."

In early 1974 a German citizen who had worked with development services since the 1950s, Dr. Irene Pinkau, undertook a study of thirty services in fifteen countries to see just where they had been and where they were going. Reasoning that the world had changed a great deal since the early 1960s, Dr. Pinkau set out to answer three questions:

1. What are the current roles of development services and what is their effectiveness in accomplishing established objectives?
2. What major policy issues must be addressed if the services are to be effective?
3. What is the impact of new directions in global relations on development services?

Dr. Pinkau's research was supported by the Charles F. Kettering Foundation, U.S. ACTION/Peace Corps, the U.S. Agency for International Development, the German Volunteer Service, the Ministry of Economic Cooperation of the Federal Republic of Germany, and the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service. Services in fifteen countries of Africa, Asia, Europe, Latin America, and North America, together with the United Nations Volunteers, cooperated in the study.

Four main categories of development services emerged from Dr. Pinkau's analysis: 1) training and employment schemes; 2) study services; 3) social and technical development services; and 4) foreign volunteer services.

The purpose of the first type of service, *training and employment schemes*, is evident in its name. Recent years have seen a tidal flow of youth pressing into the job market while, at the same time, imbalances between rural and urban development and the application of advanced technology have reduced employment opportunities. Training and employment schemes try to fill the gaps left by insufficient education or training and give those who have lost out in the education or employment race a second chance to become productive citizens.

Study services, on the other hand, seek to give students in higher education a better understanding of the problems facing society while providing them with an opportunity to serve the needs of a local community and to learn by doing.

A third division of development services, *social and technical development services*, is aimed at making the most of a country's human resources by upgrading life in individual communities through the use of skilled and experienced volunteers.

The fourth major division of development services comes under the heading of *foreign volunteer services*. According to President Kennedy, the Peace Corps, which is one example of foreign volunteer services, was founded to help meet demands for trained manpower and to foster a process of mutual learning between peoples of the world.

Dr. Pinkau's report, *Serving Human Needs*, takes a close look at all four kinds of services, giving examples from various services in different countries and drawing lessons from each. It is a thoughtful assessment of the influence of development services on local communities and the larger society, as well as a guide for the future directions of these efforts.

The study outlines a three-fold mandate for development services: (1) satisfying basic or immediate human needs; (2) changing the underlying conditions of economic privation; and (3) providing opportunities for social and political participation. Dr. Pinkau argues that while satisfying basic needs through external assistance will always be important in some places at some times, it fosters an undesirable dependency relationship on the part of the receiver; the goal should be to change conditions so that people can help themselves.

The second mandate of development services calls for modifying or eliminating the root causes of poverty, including undereducation and unemployment. It is to be carried out through participation by the distressed and the poor, as well as by those with advantage and authority, in practical efforts to solve pressing social problems. Although existing development services cannot hope to eliminate all such problems, they provide a flexible, direct way to respond to local issues, as opposed to more bureaucratic programs.

While the first two mandates change as needs come and go, the lasting role for development services is to provide citizens with opportunities for full social and political involvement in the life of their community and country. This mandate to open participation to every citizen identifies development services as vital institutions which can aid all societies in identifying and mastering their own problems.

Dr. Pinkau cites substantial shifts in world conditions since the founding of the Peace Corps. The ties between political and economic systems, the spread of technology, the scramble for dwindling world resources—these are just a few of the factors which are transforming relationships between nations. If development services are to continue to function effectively, says Dr. Pinkau, they must respond to demands generated by new international realities, new dependencies.

These inescapable facts hold some fundamental implications for the future programming of the Peace Corps and other foreign volunteer services:

(1) Because development is an ongoing process of mobilizing the internal resources of a society, it requires long-term, patient cooperation between development assistance organizations in industrialized countries and host-country agencies of the Third World.

(2) Self reliance, however modified by policy or circumstance, will continue to be a key principle in the national plans of developing countries and, consequently, in all forms of development cooperation.

(3) The old donor-recipient relationship is exhausted. Equality, mutuality, and reciprocity have become more than slogans; they are the standards used by developing-country agencies to evaluate their relations with volunteer organizations from industrialized nations.

(4) The request for foreign personnel, including volunteers with technical skills, will decline in the years ahead. However, the demand for programs that provide two-way opportunities between industrialized and developing countries will accelerate.

(5) Development assistance organizations in North America and Europe must assume active responsibility for educating the people of their own countries about the facts and consequences of human misery and alienation in the Third World. This is not only a moral obligation of the intercultural roles of such organizations, but a necessity for their survival as ventures that depend heavily on public support.

Dr. Pinkau foresees a time when, for example, volunteers from Kenya and the United States may work with neighborhood businesses in Chicago's slums while other American and Kenyan volunteers are helping to train small farmers for self employment in Kenya. To those still caught up in the old, paternalistic style of foreign aid, this may be an idea that is hard to grasp. But it is one the author believes industrialized countries must learn to accept if they are to respond intelligently to current psychological and political realities. In her view, development services are among those institutions which can help to reconcile the claims of contemporary nationalism and the competing values of world community and international order.

Phillips Ruopp
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Advancing People and Eliminating Imbalances

Rapid population growth . . . hunger . . . poor housing . . . a lack of health, educational, and social services . . . unemployment and other economic ills. The problems of development are complex. At the core, they concern human needs:

- survival and maintenance of life (the basic needs—food, clothing, shelter, health);
- access to lifelong education and employment; and
- participation in community and national affairs.

All too often, the problem of development is perceived primarily as one of economic growth, requiring transfers of capital and technology as remedies. For over a decade, however, observers have come to a growing realization that the causes for underdevelopment reside deeper in the nature of human associations, in perceptions, power, cultural traditions, and values; they cannot be resolved by charity from the rich to the poor. We have learned that:

. . . development problems are rooted in structural deficiencies in areas such as education, employment, and production, and in international economic dependencies which prevent equitable access to resources;

. . . they are kept alive by vested interests—by the economically and politically powerful, but also by cultural, tribal, and religious institutions that fear change; and

. . . their solution is hindered because individual citizens adapt with difficulty to changing conditions—they hesitate to invest themselves in their own advancement or that of their communities.

Development is a problem not only of developing countries but also of the industrial North. Change and growth are a challenge for everyone. As John Gilligan, former administrator for the Agency for International Development, put it, "There are no separate futures for the rich and the poor." Thus, the problems of poverty, opportunity, and participation are global issues. This study was motivated by a concern that, despite significant efforts to help, severe imbalances remain between the rich and the poor, the urban and the rural, the educated and the uneducated, the elites and the marginal groups. In seeking a better way to reach and involve the people on the shorter, urgent end of these imbalances, this study focuses attention on development services—both in developing countries and in industrialized nations.

The Roots of Development Service

Development services are work and learning programs, involving people from all ages and strata of life who are devoted to participating in community advancement and growth. These programs emerged in the late 1950s and early 1960s, both in developing countries and in the Northern industrialized regions of the world. With post-World War II reconstruction and the independence of former colonial countries, such agencies were created to serve human needs, to promote economic and social development, and to foster peace. But their roots go far back in history, from early self-help schemes and large-scale public work programs of early Egyptian and Chinese times to the voluntary associations of Europe and America which became more widespread at the beginning of the industrial age.

Self-help traditions, prevalent in all cultures since ancient times, arose in response to elementary survival and maintenance needs. For example, in East and Central African villages, cooperative work groups carried out joint work projects, and resource policy groups obtained and allocated the necessary resources. In Indonesia, villagers helped each other through voluntary mutual assistance groups. In North America, the early settlers built houses and barns and harvested crops together; the wives worked together on quilts or nursed each other's sick children. By nature, self help is voluntary, for mutual benefit, and restricted to one or a cluster of communities. It is governed by a community code of conduct that makes participation difficult to evade.

Voluntary associations, the second root of today's development services, go back to the end of the 18th century. The period beginning with the American and French revolutions, characterized by the emergence of the industrial age, and intensified by rapid population growth, gave rise to the first modern-day associations. Motivated by political, economic, social, or religious interests, people formed new organizations—labor unions, student and youth groups, missionary services—which differed from the earlier community

self-help groups. Often reaching to national and state levels, these organizations were formed to help the poor and underprivileged or to express political will, moral conviction, and religious beliefs.

Large-scale work programs organized by governments are the third root of today's development services. Created in response to national needs, they have employed large numbers of people in public works construction, food production and harvesting, environmental control, transportation, and communication. Examples go back thousands of years to Egypt's cooperative labor projects for building dikes and dams to control the Nile, and to China's rural public work programs for building agricultural terraces and irrigation and drainage systems. In a more recent illustration, the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) put young Americans to work during the Depression in projects of reforestation, wildlife protection, water control, and road building.

Development services of today reflect these three roots—but instead of focusing on charity or welfare, they emphasize learning, participation, and self help. When these services began in the 1950s, the newly-created United Nations and the push for independence from colonial powers brought about relationships between countries that were quite different from the bilateral ties of the colonial era. Because many current domestic development services in Africa and Asia are the products of early freedom movements, faced with developing and building their nations after independence, most are indigenous governmental schemes, while the private services—like Scouts, YWCA, YMCA, and work camp movements—are imported Western models.

The Scope of Development Services

Development services embrace a variety of program styles and organizational types, reflecting the pluralism of societies. They include both voluntary and obligatory services, governmental and nongovernmental organizations, and national and small-scale local programs. Yet, they have significant common characteristics— regardless of where they originate or whom they serve— which set them apart as unique social institutions.

As employment organizations, development services emphasize work in both production and consumption projects. They require participants to work in areas where their effort is most needed; thus they assure, in addition to effective service, work experience for the individual who serves.

As educational organizations, development services focus on experience-based learning. Training programs are designed to build skills and knowledge, both for work and for cooperation with others across tribal, cultural, and national borders. In mobilizing participants from different backgrounds as learners, development services challenge rigid attitudes and offer opportunities for personal growth.

As nonelitist participatory organizations, they involve the educated and the uneducated, the rich and the poor, the urban and the rural, the young and the old—in contrast to the traditional Anglo-Saxon concept of voluntary service performed only by the elite and the affluent. Irrespective of their background and personal wealth, participants in development services receive equal treatment and a minimum allowance for their day-to-day living. Serving under equal conditions and working side by side with members of project communities, they may learn to challenge preconceived ideas and values.

Three Yardsticks for Development Services

Development services should be planned, managed, and assessed by three yardsticks: their triple mandate, their dual role, and their criteria of effectiveness.

Most services are national in concept and policy, but grass-roots in execution; they work at the community level, primarily in remote areas or in urban slums. They are intended to be flexible, nonbureaucratic organizations which can provide benefits with less red tape and lower unit costs than the "formal" systems of society— schools, industry, business, and public administrations. Their triple mandate becomes clear when we ask, "Why do they exist in the first place?"

An examination of the performance of development services leads to the conclusion that they were created: (1) to fill immediate human needs for food, shelter, skills, and jobs; (2) to change the underlying conditions in society which give rise to development problems; and (3) to provide opportunities for participation by citizens from all walks of life and all age groups. They are both participatory cultural institutions and developmental institutions. While their development tasks change in response to changing human needs and social conditions, they have an ongoing role as cultural institutions in their own right in any active society.

The main criteria for the effectiveness of such services depend upon the extent to which they, in fact, achieve the goals of the triple mandate. To do so, they should provide out-of-school learning and skilled manpower where needed, changes in structural barriers which prevent more widespread education and employment, and participation by citizens from a wide variety of backgrounds.

Also, from our assessment of development services we have learned that delegating management and decision making to local units improves geographical and target-population coverage.

Different Needs, Different Services

Individual development problems require various kinds of solutions. Our study identified four categories of service organizations, classified according to the problem addressed.

Training and employment schemes are concerned with the illiterate, with early school dropouts, and with unemployed youth. Many national youth services and the Job Corps of the United States belong in this category.

Study-services respond to the problem of isolated higher education. The demand for experience-based learning, the reconsideration of career choices to meet manpower needs, and the call for community-oriented universities are exemplified by such projects as the study-services in Indonesia, Thailand, and Nigeria, and the U.S. University Year for ACTION.

Social and technical development services supply skilled manpower for local community development and respond to the human need to serve others. Typical are Community Service Volunteers in England, BUTSI in Indonesia, VISTA and the Older Americans Volunteer Programs in the United States, and the various business or executive community services.

Foreign volunteer services address the demand for skilled manpower in the Southern Hemisphere, as well as the need for education in the home country about Third World conditions. Examples include the U.S. Peace Corps; Canadian University Service Overseas; the Danish, Dutch, and German volunteer services; and Voluntary Service Overseas in the United Kingdom.

1. basic training in functional literacy, citizenship work, and group discipline (two months);
2. public construction or agricultural work (six months);
3. basic science education up to the lower secondary level (four months);
4. project work in farm, technical, or vocational occupations (four months);
5. technical and vocational training to achieve proficiency in trades or continuing education to pass the Grade III Trade Test (four months); and
6. general administrative or management service in day-to-day operations, replacing hired KNYS staff (four months).

At the completion of service, 80 to 90 percent of the KNYS participants pass the government's Grade III Trade Test, making them eligible for industrial employment. A minority continues for a third year of service-learning in order to pass the higher Grade II Trade Test. Somewhat fewer than one-third find urban employment, and two-thirds return to their rural communities. At home, they become farmers—sometimes on new land settlements—or enter trades or service businesses. Increasing numbers are employed as middle-level workers in rural administration, cooperatives, national parks, and public works projects.

Other training and employment schemes recruit members as young as twelve years of age—primarily illiterates and dropouts—and base their learning and work programs in the community. Examples include the Clubs 4-D de Jeunes Ruraux in Benin (Dahomey), the Kenya Village Polytechnics, Malaysia's Farm Youth Project, the Rural Youth Leadership Training in Thailand, and the National Youth Movement in Costa Rica. A third version of these schemes emphasizes training in centralized camps and work in workshops or central farms. This approach is demonstrated by the National Youth Pioneer Corps in Malaysia, by the Malawi Young Pioneers, and by the United States Job Corps.

Lesson

From training and employment schemes we have learned the value of linking a service to both the education system and the employment system. Such linkage is accomplished by one or a series of formally-established connections, transferring resources or power, expanding coverage, improving volume, and enabling the partners to act as a system.

Linking development service to the education system through accreditation is crucial, at least so long as certificates are required for upward mobility in our societies. A participant's proficiency should be recognized both for continuing education and for employment. However, equivalency credit for service-learning should not be based on the service's facilities and the staff's formal teaching qualifications, since these requirements significantly increase costs, restrict flexibility, and defeat the very purpose of these services; rather, credit should be based on the proficiency of graduates of the program.

The key to expanding job opportunities lies not in urban industrial and public administration employment, but in an expanded rural job market brought about by:

- increasing agricultural production;
- furthering self employment in farming, trades, and private services through the use of land-settlements, low-cost revolving loans, extension services for the self employed, cooperative marketing, and removal of legal barriers for required licenses; and
- opening opportunities for rural paraprofessionals.

Study Services

Problem

Post secondary education is a privilege; according to UNESCO, it reaches only a minority of those aged twenty to twenty-four[3] and, even for that group, it has limitations in three major areas which affect development:

First, the failure to provide students with employable skills—primarily technical, problem-solving, and managerial—creates a gap between employment needs and available manpower.

Second, schools that emphasize teaching do not necessarily produce independent learners, and the dominance of cognitive instruction does not necessarily foster personal growth.

Third, most institutions of higher education are not formally linked to their surrounding communities and to the society at large, and therefore are not required to respond directly to social and economic problems. In fact, their isolation tends to create barriers and imbalances between the educated and the uneducated.

Communities, on the other hand, lack services in remote rural areas because most trained professionals prefer life in urban centers. While student volunteers cannot replace professionals permanently, they are equipped to provide certain services in such areas as primary education, health, paralegal work, and rural administration.

Example

The objectives of Thailand's Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme (Thammasat University Service) exemplify the reasons most study-services are established:

- to train graduates to sacrifice and work for the public benefit;
- to give graduates the opportunity to be involved in field work in rural areas and to encourage their interest in it;
- to foster development of human relations skills for the community in which they live.[4]

These concepts are not new. Combining work-learning with classroom education goes back to the German "Arbeitsschule" (1908), the cooperative education programs of U.S. colleges, study-service of the 1940s in Indonesia, and others. What *is* new in today's study-services is the combination of academic learning with work and social service for others. Also new is the institutionalization of study-service within the university, "to strengthen," says Soedjatmoko of Indonesia, "the national capacity for moral reasoning in relation to the development effort." Dr. Alec G. Dickson, founder of the British VSO and the Community Service Volunteers, calls this "the curricular approach to community service."

Created in 1969 at Thammasat University as a one-year, full-time service for academic credit, the Thailand program requires students to spend three months in training before working for nine months in remote villages. Students from all disciplines participate, but they are not necessarily assigned to areas related to their academic specialties. Work and service for the poor are regarded as proper activities for anyone privileged to receive a higher education. Preservice training, consequently, focuses on the problems of rural society—social organization, community development, human relations and leadership, social research methods and reporting, and instruction in technical field work—in

other words, providing services and transferring skills. Students work as teachers in primary and secondary schools, in rural health services, and in community development projects under the leadership of villagers. As a nongovernmental program, the Thammasat University Service is financed from many sources, including the university, some governmental funds, foreign aid, and the receiving communities which house the volunteers free of charge.

Though small (annually averaging forty volunteers), Thammasat University Service achieves impressive results. Reports on the service stress the quality of work, maturity, and self confidence of graduates, and their changed attitudes toward Thai villagers. But, most important, 47 percent of the graduates have returned to rural areas for employment as teachers or community development workers. This action contradicts the stereotype of the university graduate who prefers, for fear of being regarded as a loser, to live unemployed in an urban center rather than to work in a rural area.

While the Thammasat University Service is a voluntary service for credit—that is, an "elective" course—many study-services in developing countries are obligatory, such as those in Indonesia, Nepal, Nigeria, and Tanzania. These require students to serve for six to twelve months in rural areas. In the United States, the University Year for ACTION is a government-sponsored study-service with students serving surrounding communities full-time for a year. In Europe, only the United Kingdom reports study-services established by colleges and universities or provided by them in cooperation with a service—for example, the Community Service Volunteers.

Lesson

Credit for the work-service part of learning is still a crucial and open issue. Universities tend to award credit for the academic part of a service—for the student's training and the final report; they still evade assessing learning through work as part of the academic process. Two things are essential to the initiation of change within educational institutions: (1) institutionalization within the university of a study-service unit, and (2) faculty participation in service to the community.

The time when service is scheduled determines the integration of work or service-learning into the academic curriculum. For example, full-time service, sandwiched between courses after two or three years of study, promises best results for individual learning, contribution to the community, and impact on the university. In contrast, service scheduled after completion of formal study and before graduation leaves the university virtually untouched; it becomes mere job-entry training for the student.

Students have demonstrated that they can expand the skills and knowledge of the communities they serve. Preferred activities include expanding primary education in villages; providing health, nutritional, educational, or legal services; and aiding small farmers, tradesmen, and businessmen. By working in a community, students gain skills in organizing, researching, planning, reporting, and allocating resources. Often for the first time, they feel needed and gain confidence in their abilities; and, because of their work experience, they are able to consider their career choices with more maturity.

Social and Technical Development Services

Problem

People, whether educated formally or through life experience, are an asset. If these most valuable resources lie idle, no community can meet the needs of its citizens. Communities and countries need the investment of people:

- to sustain life and its physical quality—to improve nutrition, housing, health, and social services for the elderly, the sick, the handicapped, and the otherwise disadvantaged;
- to expand production and employment to improve income capacity, especially for the poor;
- to build an active community across cultural, educational, geographical, and economic barriers.

And yet, the human resources of many are wasted—for example:

- University graduates remain unemployed and idle in many cities.
- Many middle-aged persons cannot find employment because they lack formal qualifications and thus do not fit "the system."
- Senior citizens who may be lacking in literacy, but who have practical experience and wisdom which they could contribute to the community, are neglected.
- Retired professionals, businessmen, and civil servants often live in retirement and recreation enclaves, unchallenged and feeling no longer needed.

Example

Volunteer manpower mobilized by the Indonesian Volunteer Service is meant to be composed of those who possess education (and, it is hoped, expertise) needed for social and economic development; who have a strong sense of service, dedication, and devotion, enabling them to become pioneers in social renovation and construction; and who are able to accept temporary assignments.[5]

BUTSI in Indonesia (the Badan Urusan Tenaga Kerdja Sukarela Indonesia) is an example of a social and technical development service. Established in 1968 as a pilot project to help solve the problems of unemployed university graduates (6,000 in Jakarta alone) and to remedy the lack of skilled manpower in rural areas, the service passed its initial test and is now a nationwide, full-time, two-year program. It has 2,000 volunteers at present and aims at a future strength of 4,000. The eight-week, preservice training includes a three-week stay in the village where the volunteer will work. There he or she surveys the community to develop a preliminary plan with guidance from the village chief. Other parts of the training take place in the provincial capitals, which will later supervise volunteers in development programs. Volunteers are assigned to villages on a one-for-one basis, with a team of four or five working in one subdistrict, under the leadership of the village chief, for at least one and generally two years.

Clearly stated work program goals are:

- to induce among local officials and residents the attitudinal changes necessary for development;
- to bring existing governmental development programs to the village level; and
- to point career choices of young university graduates toward the real needs of society, especially in rural areas.

Volunteers work to increase production by helping to control erosion; introducing new crops; and improving animal husbandry, access to markets, and the rural infrastructure (for example, irrigation and roads). They seek, also, to improve consumption and the physical quality of life: housing, drinking water, sanitary facilities,

nutrition, and health. Finally, they encourage enhancement of local knowledge and skills through adult education programs, improvement of village administration, youth leadership training, and cultural and social activities.

Volunteers work as "cross-sectional" development workers; that is, they try to integrate various development programs into one local effort under village leadership. One key to their success is the "consumer education" given to village chiefs and district officers so that they can involve the volunteers most effectively. This concept was originally developed by Community Service Volunteers in England and is regarded as more important than training volunteers for local service.

Between 1968 and 1974, BUTSI had served 2,225 villages (out of a total of 56,000) and operated in twenty-four of Indonesia's twenty-six provinces (consisting of more than 30,000 islands)—an indication that it aims at nationwide coverage. All former volunteers are reported to have found employment, primarily in the country's development programs. Today, it is a manpower policy to hire junior civil servants from among BUTSI graduates. As a result of BUTSI's success, the universities became interested in giving this opportunity for work and social learning to students, and in 1972 President Suharto announced the National Study-Service Scheme, KKN (Kuliah Kerja Nyata).

Lesson

The "right to serve" principle represents an advanced state of democratic participation. Formulated by Dr. Alec G. Dickson, the founder of England's Community Service Volunteers, the principle gives to every citizen who applies the right to serve a community need—to be placed in an appropriate role. Designing a variety of programs specifically for youth, business people, the elderly, and retired professionals opens new service opportunities and attracts more involvement; the capacity of the service expands and enters a higher stage of mobilization. In such a service, the major volunteer roles are:

- supplying skills and manpower to communities unable to hire needed personnel;
- helping local leaders to use outside aid for self-reliant development;
- acting as an ombudsman on behalf of the community, individuals, or groups in order to attract governmental and private programs to the community and to speak up for the needs of the villagers, the sick, the handicapped, minorities, and others who might otherwise be overlooked.

There is no contradiction between the volunteer roles of trainer and of community organizer; both are necessary to build local capacity for managing community affairs.

Foreign Volunteer Services

Problem

Foreign volunteer services grew out of both foreign and domestic needs. While developing countries often need foreign assistance at the grass-roots level for developing indigenous skills and creating jobs, they need, also, understanding by industrialized countries of developing countries' needs, their ways of life, their cultural heritages, and their aspirations.

Example

When President Kennedy in 1961 proposed the creation of the Peace Corps, he was following up an interest he had already discussed with students during his campaign for the presidency. Preceding his proposal, the British Voluntary Service Overseas had in 1958 sent young volunteers to work in developing countries. Also, the Canadian University Overseas Volunteers (later incorporated as CUSO) had tested its first group of volunteers in the field.

The Peace Corps was unique because, for the first time, a U.S. president, supported by Congress, had put the power and resources of government on the line to create an opportunity for citizens to be involved in responding to a foreign country's needs. Unique also, for the American citizen, was the president's concept of a foreign volunteer service as a vehicle for "promoting a better understanding of the American people on the part of the peoples served, and a better understanding of other peoples on the part of the American people."[6] This concept came to be known as "service-learning abroad" and "development education at home."

The third unique feature of the Peace Corps was its mandate to "encourage countries and areas to establish programs under which their citizens and nationals would volunteer to serve in order to help meet the needs of less developed countries."[7]

Through the Peace Corps, more than 72,000 Americans have served for two years in more than seventy countries of Africa, Asia, and Latin America. Initially, it was primarily a program for students with bachelor's degrees; (about 12 percent of the volunteers had master's degrees or doctorates, and about 20 percent had no degree). The need of developing countries for technical skills and experienced manpower, however, shifted recruitment somewhat to technicians and craftsmen, including older people with families. The legal minimum age for entrance to the Peace Corps is eighteen years, but in practice most candidates are older. There are no age limits for senior citizens; the basic requirement is good health and suitability for the job. In 1974, the average age of Peace Corps volunteers was 27.3 years, and volunteers were assigned to work in six major program areas:

1. Forty-five percent were in education, including technical and vocational training and teacher education.
2. Twenty-three percent were in agriculture and rural development.

3. Twelve percent were in health services to communities, including training and sanitation.
4. Five percent were in urban development and public works.
5. Five percent were in business and public administration.
6. Ten percent were in special projects, such as drought relief and rehabilitation, earthquake rehabilitation, environmental control and conservation, refugee relief, and cultural preservation.

As the demands for technical assistance have increased, so have the requests for more technically-skilled volunteers, gradually leading to the one-sided profile that today characterizes most foreign volunteer services as "junior expert programs," a profile which severely endangers their mandate to be learners and helpers. This one-sided technical assistance, although most developing countries have requested it, has meant that the dream of national counterparts, to whom the foreign volunteers would transfer their skills, has not materialized. The reason, of course, is that the counterpart concept implies budgeting of a new job for a national, who would be assigned to work with a foreign volunteer. In contrast, for volunteers with fewer technical skills, the whole community often becomes the counterpart, opening participation to local citizens for whom formal jobs need not be created.

In both instances, encounters in a foreign culture and work environment are educational, and most foreign volunteers acknowledge that they have learned more than they have given. But while they have helped meet important manpower needs, and on a modest and local scale have initiated change in the conditions which maintain poverty, in most cases they have not been able to translate their individual experience into mutual learning at home and abroad.

Today, foreign volunteer services, including the Peace Corps, are at a crossroads. With the need for long-term technical assistance by foreign personnel diminishing and the demand for abolishing "giver-receiver" relationships increasing, the future calls for a two-way avenue of partnership. As Carl Rogers has said, "The optimal helping relationship is the kind of relationship which is psychologically mature. Or put in another way, the degree to which I can create relationships which facilitate the growth of others as separate persons, is a measure of the growth I have achieved in myself."[8]

Lesson

To serve basic human needs while remaining grassroots organizations, foreign volunteer services must not lose sight of their original target groups in assigning volunteers. Working only in higher education, for example, supports elite groups and defeats the purpose of a service.

Another key factor to consider is which kinds of projects can best be used to support the development of self reliance among citizen groups of the countries served. At present, service projects in areas such as health care, nutrition, improvement of housing, and care for the sick and handicapped are consumption-oriented and tend to maintain dependency on the foreigner—a condition which needs to be changed. Such services should become, as quickly as possible, the province of domestic volunteers. Foreign volunteers should be assigned primarily to production projects in areas such as basic education, skill training, agriculture, crafts, trades, small-scale rural industry, marketing, and transport.

The fostering of self reliance requires, also, that helpers start as learners, and that outside organizers work closely with local residents who can be trained to take over and maintain the projects after the foreign volunteers leave. It is essential that foreign volunteer services establish bases in local communities in their own countries. The lack of community ties at home has weakened their capacity for responding to change in developing countries and inhibited their role in educating their citizens to conditions and problems abroad. The Canadian University Service Overseas, one exception to this rule, demonstrates that a strong local base for development education in the home country can improve the overseas performance of a foreign volunteers service. It creates an intelligent constituency, not only for public and financial support, but for remaining responsive to the changing needs and priorities of developing countries.

Three Policy Issues

In an examination of the four types of development services, three policy issues stand out for the legislator, the planner, and the administrator:

1. ensuring lifelong educational opportunity,
2. expanding employment, and
3. encouraging citizen participation.

Ensuring Lifelong Educational Opportunity

Recurrent or lifelong education is learner-oriented, opening learning at different times, places, and levels to citizens of all ages. It is not intended to replace the whole educational system, but rather to modify the current concentration on offering schooling only during childhood and early youth by opening opportunities for people to return to school throughout their lives. It is a concept and public policy accepted by all member countries of UNESCO. This right to lifelong education requires integration of the formal school with nonformal educational activities. Open admission and upward mobility in learning become individual rights—and a corresponding obligation for the educational system. Recurrent education requires legislation by each country such as that adopted by Tanzania in 1967, Indonesia in 1969, and Peru in 1972. (In 1975, the European Ministers of Education adopted a public policy of recurrent education for the entire European Community.)

The developmental aspect shapes a special profile for recurrent education. It produces learners who advance themselves, in contrast to students who merely receive instruction; it is community-supported; and it identifies learning needs and objectives while stipulating means to achieve them.

But the right to lifelong education has a high price tag; no country could meet its costs through the conventional school system. Therefore, its realization depends upon delegation of the educational obligation not only to schools, but also to outside educational organizations. One system of lifelong education, suggested by Friedrich Edding, would set a limit to the period of obligatory full-time education (for example, when the student reaches the age of eighteen) and specify a program of institutional learning alternating with work-learning.[9]

Such a link between work and learning can be provided by development services. As educational organizations, they can combine learning with work and service programs while retaining the capacity to reduce social costs. Several such programs—normal training for illiterates or dropouts, credited service-learning, and career learning experiences for mature persons—have already been organized by development services. The problem with most of them is that they have been "happenings" rather than the result of concerted effort. To address the issue of recurrent education most effectively, development services must identify the learning needs of target populations and establish policies which emphasize service-learning, both as an alternative to classroom education and as a recurring opportunity for people of all ages.

It is important that work and service projects in communities be based upon internal leadership to ensure responsive, lifelong education and active learners. In addition, service-learning should be linked with the formal educational system to ensure:

- . . . agreements on criteria for admission, grade promotion, and credit for service-learning;
- . . . learning programs which can be related to classroom teaching;
- . . . programs which provide teachers with work and service-learning, and development service staff with teaching experience; and
- . . . regular feedback and review, both of the work or service-learning program itself and of financial allocations and resources.

Expanding Employment

Unemployment, underemployment and marginality are universal concerns which affect at least one-third of humanity at the present time, offending human diginity and preventing the exercise of the right to work.[10]

The employment problem is complex. It involves both underutilization of human resources and a shortage of productive employment. Its solution addresses the basic need for life with dignity. The problem is intensified by population growth and the disparity between urban and rural development. Experts agree that other factors which incite, aggravate, and prolong unemployment are:

- imbalances among economic growth, population expansion, and educational opportunity;
- contrasts between, on the one hand, people's aspirations and expectations for work, and on the other, employment structures, work opportunities, and income distribution;
- changing job needs, due to constantly improving technology; and
- limitations of export markets and worsening terms of trade.

To generate productive jobs and change development patterns, a combination of measures should be directed at both rural and urban unemployment. Job expansion in urban areas is limited because it favors capital-intensive rather than labor-intensive employment. In fact, urban job expansion can increase urban unemployment, even as it generates new jobs, because it attracts numbers of unemployed rural migrants. Therefore, a development strategy for employment must create jobs in rural areas if it is to succeed in reducing urban unemployment. Such a strategy should aim at:

- slowing down population growth;
- retaining the labor force in rural communities; and
- encouraging reverse migration of the educated from urban to rural areas for certain employment periods.

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As employment organizations, development services operate primarily in rural areas and provide a transition between education and employment. They also provide temporary manpower for rural development work in response to community needs. And they help to generate continuous employment, both in the receiving community and, for the volunteers, beyond the period of volunteer service. Without intensive mechanization, they increase agricultural production, and they support rural crafts, services, and small-scale industry. Their aid to rural cooperatives in marketing, storage, credit, and distribution of supplies not only stimulates the local job market, but it improves the infrastructure and retains people in rural areas.

The employment orientation of development services is reflected primarily in volunteer training and work assignments. For example, in preparing participants for governmental trade tests, the Kenya National Youth Service (KNYS) stresses skill training. It also conducts large-scale work programs involving heavy machinery. Yet two-thirds of the volunteers return to their villages (primarily for self employment), while only one-third of them enter industrial work. Thus, the gap between employment during service and opportunity after completion still exists. Recently, some rural administration jobs have opened for KNYS graduates in their home regions—a development which points the way to a more favorable employment trend.

In another illustration, BUTSI, in Indonesia, assigns young professionals for two years as development workers in villages—a "brain gain" for rural areas. This period of service is perfect preparation for later civil service employment in development administration, the field entered by most former volunteers.

A third example demonstrates the linkage of development services to self employment. The Clubs 4-D in Benin assign uneducated youth to work club farms in home villages in order to give them training useful for later self employment. While this program is successful in emphasizing technical and management skills, and the communities have supported the program by providing the farm land, the step into self employment at graduation from service had not materialized at the time of this study. This meant, in 1974, that 1,025 trained and matured youngsters remained idle and disappointed. That last important leg, the link to employment, was missing. To achieve it would require 1) a revolving loan fund to get young farmers or tradesmen started in self employment, 2) help for them to clear already available land and to establish shelter, and 3) support by the governmental extension service.

While the study revealed development services' capacity to improve employment opportunities, and it even demonstrated instances of their having done so, a general policy on employment was missing. To develop such a policy, development services must identify employment needs in rural areas for out-of-school youth, young adults, women, land-poor farmers, subsistence farmers, and other unemployed; and in urban areas for unemployed youth, squatters, and the underemployed. They will need to emphasize volunteer projects which generate primarily rural employment through increasing agricultural production; improving rural infrastructure and supporting self employment in farming, trades, and services; and expanding rural markets and cultural activities.

Volunteers should be trained in skills compatible with their project assignments and with their expected future occupations; they should also be prepared to teach others the skills they have learned.

Development services must be linked to the employment system through cooperation with national employment planning, employers, labor unions, development programs, and agencies concerned with unemployment problems; they must also advocate removal of regulations hindering self employment (for example, some licensing regulations) and support local employment expansion among the poor.

Encouraging Citizen Participation

Citizen participation is both a means and an end in itself. The term implies equality and action. Without citizen participation—regardless of the political system of a country—the self reliance desired and needed by developing countries cannot be achieved.

Within a society, citizen participation is stratified. It rises from the immediate concerns of a family for its survival, through community, tribal, and regional concerns to concern for the nation as a whole. At each level, participation is possible in either of two ways: action or decision making.

Comparing this hierarchy of participation in society to Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of human needs,[11] one realizes that full participation in society is linked to fulfillment of the basic human needs for survival and maintenance of life. Do we expect too much, too soon, then, from those who must first ensure their own survival?

The relationship between human needs and citizen participation suggests that citizen participation in development is a broader and more multi-faceted concept than has normally been perceived from the affluent, Western point of view. Citizen participation means many things to many people; it easily evades facile definitions and complicates the problem of goal setting.

But there *are* yardsticks. Edgar Owens and Robert Shaw, in their analysis of two forms of social organization which they have termed "dual" and "modernizing," present persuasive arguments that the degree of a country's success in alleviating poverty depends heavily upon the extent to which it involves citizens in fighting the problem.[12] This concerted action of a people to solve its own problems is the kind of "citizen mobilization" that is the goal of development services.

Development services represent a higher level of citizen mobilization than earlier programs, and they are therefore more complex. Their mobilization capacity should be considered from at least five aspects:

1. **Their ability to affect individual and community values**
When a volunteer from one tribe in Kenya, for example, is accepted by another tribal group for service, the values of all those involved may be changed. In fact, the very acceptance of the idea of public service may represent a change in values on the part of individuals in the two tribes.

2. **Their ability to involve others besides the volunteers in development activities**
The priorities and the design of an individual development service will determine the degree to which its volunteers can be successful in mobilizing others in the community and the extent of the service's influence upon public policy and action.

3. **Their ability to stimulate interaction between the people of nations, societies, and communities**
The introduction of an "outsider" into a community can be a powerful force for change, if properly planned. It can provide the impulse for moving a community from a maintenance posture to one of advancement. However, care must be taken to develop corresponding internal leadership. Planning should be continuous and flexible, rather than static and preconceived.

4. **Their ability to attract donors and volunteers**
Private volunteer organizations are entirely dependent upon these two factors, but a government volunteer program that fails to attract widespread support is also in trouble. Voluntary action is deeply rooted in cultural traditions and cannot easily be "invented." Both the organizational structure of a service and government tax laws can help or hinder its ability to attract support. (The Canadian CUSO and the British Community Service Volunteers are examples of notable mobilization capacity in this respect.)

5. **Their ability to disperse authority within the service**
Development services allow for varying degrees of sharing of authority by volunteers. Most programs *for* volunteers—such as the Peace Corps and BUTSI/Indonesia, for example—allow for little or no sharing, while those which are organized as programs *of* volunteers—such as CUSO or CSV—provide for a high degree of sharing of authority. Since sharing authority and decision making is the highest form of participation, the most democratic method of social mobilization, it would seem that programs encouraging a great deal of participation in such processes would have the most potential for attracting enthusiastic volunteers.

The mobilization capacity of development services is a central issue, for it directs their role in lifelong education and employment generation. Without a clear policy and subsequent action to involve citizens, development services evade their mandate and raise questions about their validity.

Among the many facets of citizen participation, the following have been found to be especially important elements of strategy for wider involvement:

Planners should review the program of the service and adopt an overall policy which mobilizes citizens in local communities.

They should elaborate a citizen participation strategy which removes barriers to participation and creates mobilizing approaches to the general public and the local community, both within the service organization and between the organization and government.

Program activities should favor organizational decentralization; a diversity of service opportunities for different population groups; community participation in volunteer selection, placement, and training; and local leadership in volunteer projects.

Development service programs should establish local structures which involve volunteers, staff, and citizens in decision making. In addition, their financial management should encourage supervisory participation by volunteers, staff, and involved citizens.

Three Stages of Relationships

Development service organizations, like other organizations, go through an evolutionary process which determines their survival and effectiveness. This study has divided the evolution of development services into three stages, two of which are familiar to the services of most countries. The third stage is presented as the ideal for which services should aim if they are to accomplish the goals discussed earlier. Of course this classification oversimplifies; most development services have elements of more than one stage of relationships, but perhaps the classification system given here can serve to elucidate the findings of our study and provide guideposts for services which are striving for greater effectiveness.

Stage I: No Cooperation—A Dormant Relationship

Because they have a common reason for existence in addition to similar structures and program activities, development services have the potential for effective cooperation. They are one family of social organizations, whether or not they cooperate.

In the stage of no cooperation, services know of one another's existence, and their staffs or directors may attend the same international conferences, but no productive interaction is attempted. Outside manpower and funds are not used for expansion or improvement of activities.

But this study found that the "no cooperation" level is a necessary part of the evolutionary process. Service staff members see outside cooperation as premature at this stage; they want first to establish internal control over manpower and funds in order to secure the organization's identity and integrity. Part of this hesitancy to cooperate has its roots in attitudes associated with foreign assistance. As one respondent put it, "Outside volunteers and staff cannot be received if they operate as superiors."

The state of no cooperation among development services is characterized by concentration on self maintenance, transitoriness, and an awareness that higher levels of organizational growth and self realization can be achieved only if outside help is provided under conditions of equality and with internal leadership.

Stage II: Foreign Assistance—A "Giver-Receiver" Relationship

Foreign assistance attempts to mobilize people, their minds and their money, to help close the gaps between rich and poor countries. Part of a broader set of international relationships which evolved with the coming of the development era after World War II, it carries with it a giver-receiver orientation stemming from the imbalances of wealth and the inequities in access to knowledge, jobs, resources, and upward mobility among countries. Aid to developing countries was intended to create opportunities for the poor to mobilize people to help themselves, and to foster world peace and new friendships. Today, we know that this is too simplistic—aid alone cannot accomplish all these ends.

Training and Employment Schemes

Problem

The youth population of the world increased during the decade of the 1970s nearly four fold. About half of the world's school-age youth are currently unable to obtain adequate employment. About half of those attending school drop out at the age of ten or eleven.[1] Young persons privileged to attend school often receive a general education oriented toward the academic world and quickly outmoded by rapid social and technological changes. And the young continue to press into the job market at an ever-increasing rate.

Example

G. W. Griffin, Director of the Kenya National Youth Services (KNYS), gave this rationale for his organization:

> . . . to give youth who have been involved in the liberation fight an opportunity to return to their community to a normal working life; to foster a national spirit of self-reliance among youth, and move from a multi-tribal society to one nation.[2]

This was the point of departure for KNYS in 1964 as a training and employment scheme following independence in 1963. By 1978, about 35,000 young Kenyans —both men and women between sixteen and thirty years of age—had passed through this full-time, two-year service, operating under the Department of Labor.

Participants, recruited from all regions of Kenya, need not meet an education requirement; each opening has fifty candidates waiting. Volunteers receive an upgrading of basic education and are trained in technical and vocational skills and citizenship roles. They work first in large-scale public projects, and later in areas of their technical proficiency. Work includes fighting the tse-tse fly; clearing land for agricultural settlements; and building dams, irrigation systems, and roads in remote areas. Volunteers also are assigned to state farms, where they learn and demonstrate sheep and cattle raising and family farming. The learning and work programs are "sandwiched" in six phases of two to six months each:

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Emerging global relations are governed by interdependence among nations and the need of developing countries for self reliance—not by Northern dominance. However, the giver-receiver relationship of foreign assistance, in which the giver assumes some kind of superiority to the receiver, manifests itself primarily in a "threatening" way—even though this form of cooperation may gradually help to remove barriers among unequal partners.

Till now, foreign assistance programs have primarily supported training and employment schemes and, to a lesser degree, study-services and social and technical development services. This foreign assistance has used five channels:

1. personnel assignments of experts and foreign volunteers,
2. financial support,
3. equipment and material aid,
4. training of a national staff, and
5. leadership conferences and visitation programs to develop concepts, policies, and programs.

Aid for such projects has come from the United Nations, from governmental agencies, from the foreign and domestic volunteer services of industrialized countries, from individual volunteers, and from two international coordinating bodies, the Coordinating Committee for International Voluntary Service (CCIVS) in Paris and the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service in Geneva (dissolved in April of 1976). The attention these "givers" have paid to "receiving" services in developing countries has been found to differ widely. More often than not, assistance has been subordinated in larger aid packages for social or agricultural development. Consequently, it is not dovetailed to the needs and mandates of development services. Available resources could no doubt be used more efficiently if assistance were related to particular needs.

The Changing Role of Aid Programs

Our study's assessment of foreign assistance revealed not only many details of the old giver-receiver arrangement, but, also, much about the future of such relationships. We found that:

- Financial assistance will still be needed for a long time to come, but only at certain plateaus of growth of a service organization.
- Instead of importing equipment and materials, volunteers will need to assist local personnel in improving their equipment and materials (for example, the Peace Corps in Benin has helped Clubs 4-D members to build grain storage facilities there).
- Long-term assignments of experts and foreign volunteers will gradually diminish as domestic skilled manpower becomes available and the long-term domination of foreigners becomes less tolerable.

In general, our study found that foreign assistance should be allowed to accommodate itself to an equal partnership. There are, however, areas where one-sided giving will be needed for an extended period. This is especially true for the least-developed countries, in which a large proportion of the population is still at or below the minimum living conditions necessary for basic human needs. For those countries, our study found, an effective program of foreign assistance must consider: (1) sustaining a development service until it attracts sufficient national resources, (2) expanding service to include more population groups and geographical areas in need, and (3) improving program quality—such as providing certified training for recurrent education.

While service programs should continue to support short-term expert assistance (especially among equal partners) to advise on planning, to generate ideas, and to evaluate programs, they should also support the assignment of long-term foreign volunteers in training and employment schemes to help bridge staffing gaps until sufficient national staff is developed. In addition, foreign assistance programs should consider assistance to national staff development in the areas of career competency, promotion, and security.

According to Saul Mendlovitz, "Humankind face[s] five major problems: war, poverty, social injustice, environmental decay, and alienation."[13] If these problems are to be addressed, certain truths must be recognized. Emerging global situations demand changes in the current international system. Industrialized countries must realize, according to Abraham Sirkin, "that we are no longer sufficient to ourselves . . . that we must cooperate with others . . . that we cannot remain forever rich in a sea of poverty. . . ."[14]

Self reliance for developing countries is not a withdrawal from global relations, but a search for more equitable and just forms of interdependence. According to Samuel Parmar, its development entails:

- rejecting imitative approaches such as the one that says a developed society must become a high-production/high-consumption society (there is a difference between socially useful production/consumption, and "affluence");
- ensuring that social justice accompanies economic growth; and
- giving priority to needed social and institutional changes.[15]

Stage III: Partnership-Cooperation: A Relationship of Equals

Achieving the international cooperation needed to cope with existing and emerging threats to human well-being is dependent on creating a new concept of world order in which the basic emphasis is more on cooperation and a sense of community and less on conflict and competition.[16]

Increasingly, global conditions demand the joint management of affairs among nations. Management of international relations solely by foreign policy is no longer sufficient. Furthermore, while the industrialized nations (particularly since the 1974 oil crisis) apply the word "interdependence" to changed world conditions, the developing countries stress "self reliance" as *their* role.

These perceptions are compatible. However, to realize both interdependence and self reliance, we must reorder our global priorities and values. "Purposeful world reform is a quest for the realization of new *values*, a question of defining *new moral preferences*," says Ali Mazrui.[17] In a world where interdependence, self reliance, and new moral values are the guidelines for existence, partnership roles must be learned through interaction to arrive at consensus, according to Mazrui. There is no longer anyone who "knows it all"—if there ever was. As organizations for work/service-learning, development services have the capacity to become the primary vehicles for fostering cultural interaction in learning and development work. They can be the first to prepare common people for productive and successful interdependence.

Development services will, of course, continue to reach target populations and to serve the human needs of those at the lower end of the development scale. What will change is the relationship among those who serve. The elements of the partnership-cooperation relationship include:

- equal status for all volunteer partners, including allowances, housing, work responsibilities, and leadership responsibilities;
- reciprocity of service between developing and industrialized countries to guarantee equal giving and receiving roles;
- mutuality of learning and helping in both volunteer training *and* work programs;
- administration of partnership-cooperation projects by the host country service;
- determination by the host countries of organizational arrangements, responsibility, and authority; and
- co-financing, including a broad range of cash and in-kind resources, with financial administration in the hands of the host service.

These elements should guide the design of projects under partnership-cooperation. The projects themselves, however, should relate to existing programs and structures.

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Some Thoughts on the Future of Development Service Partnerships

When development services were established, they were seen as a means of aiding the poor, as a solution to a problem—with an end in sight. Today, we know differently. Our study has shown that development services have played a role in changing world conditions. It has also indicated that these services have the capacity to grow and expand to meet human needs on our now very limited globe. As cultural institutions in their own right, they are called upon to help guide their communities and participate in the direction their societies take. To do this, they must give their attention to three important issues:

1. The relationship between volunteer service and government This relationship is a subject stimulating much discussion at present. Past programs have shown that federal governments and national corporations cannot provide all of a country's needed human services. Ways must be found to make programs less costly and to "humanize" them in order to attract and employ the many underused citizens—young or old—who can contribute to the welfare of the community.

2. Volunteer service and education Many people have come to regard lifelong education as a right. In addition, many see community-bound education as essential to the promotion of responsible, contributing citizenship. Dealing with these issues will require creative cooperative efforts by volunteer service agencies and educational institutions.

3. Volunteer services and the cause of peace The study of global relationships has shown that involving ordinary citizens from various cultures and nations in joint projects has a potential for furthering international consensus on issues of mutual concern, a vital element in the cause of peace. Citizens and governments from both developing and industrialized countries can work together to make our local communities and our world more livable places.

As this study has emphasized, development service programs need to remain flexible and responsive to the needs of the countries involved. With this caution in mind, we offer the following suggestions for ways in which development services could begin to help bring about equal partnerships for development between industrialized and developing countries:

Training and employment schemes can provide for projects which pair groups of uneducated youths from neighboring countries, especially where such groups share a common language or hold membership in the same or related tribes. In joint youth service schemes, foreign volunteers should have equal status with members of the national staff, receiving inservice training along with nationals.

In addition, technical training and apprenticeship programs in the industrialized countries of the North could include unskilled youths from developing countries who are already in the area.

Similarly, *study-service* programs in industrialized countries could team resident volunteers with volunteers from among the many foreign students studying in those countries. Such an action would realize the concept of reverse service without requiring significant new legislation or new funding sources. In the long run, however, foreign study scholarship programs would need to accept service as a legitimate part of the learning experience. Faculty exchange programs and sister university programs are two other existing institutions which could be used to further partnerships between countries in work/service-learning projects.

Social and technical development services may be the easiest point of entry into equal partnerships in development programs. Aside from the costs of international travel, all other costs can be borne by the host

services. Staff exchanges between such partnerships could be easily arranged. Sister city and international friendship/travel programs are examples of programs which can be broadened beyond the traditional visits by local officials or selected groups to include an exchange of volunteers to meet specific needs in the cooperating countries.

Finally, *foreign volunteer services* should, whenever possible, abandon the "giver" role and pair their own volunteers with volunteers from host countries in genuine equal partnerships. In voluntary projects, foreigners should accept equal-term assignments with domestic volunteers. Programs designed to educate those at home to the needs of foreign countries should call upon not only returned volunteers but the many able and educated foreigners—students and others—who may be living in the country temporarily. Such an approach would keep services at the grass-roots level, the best vantage point for identifying new involvement opportunities for both foreigners and nationals.

Development services were organized to address perceived needs. Our study has shown that, as needs change, the services must also change if they are to continue to prove useful in the pursuit of national and international social goals. We believe the study has shown that the potential for continued service exists within the structure of current development services if they will be flexible and responsive to these changing needs. The task of ensuring such responsiveness falls to all of us who dream and work for a better world.

TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT SCHEMES†

Benin: Clubs 4-D de Jeunes Ruraux (Clubs 4-D)

Kenya: National Youth Service (KNYS)
Village Polytechnics (V.P.)

Malaysia: National Youth Pioneers Corps (NYPC)
National Youth Development Corps (NYDC)
National Youth Leadership Training (NYLT)
Farm Youth Program (FYP)

Thailand: Rural Youth Leadership Training (RYLT)

Costa Rica: Movimiento Nacional de Juventudes (MNJ)

Panama: Servicio Nacional de Voluntarios (SNV)

STUDY SERVICES†

Nigeria: National Youth Service Corps (NYSC)

Thailand: Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme, Thammasat University (TUVP)

Costa Rica: Movimiento Nacional de Juventudes (MNJ)

Panama: Servicio Nacional de Voluntarios (SNV)

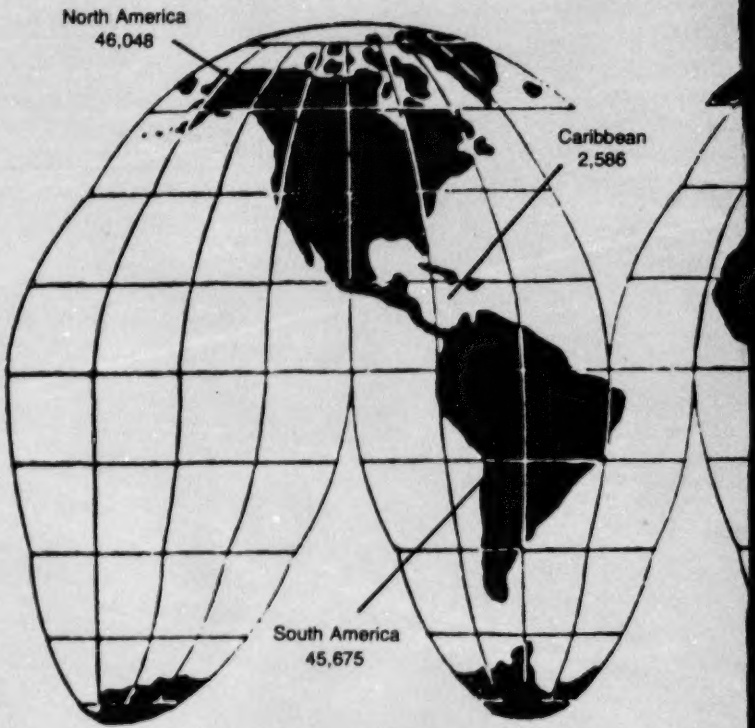
USA: University Year for ACTION (UYA)

SOCIAL AND TECHNICAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICES†

Kenya: Voluntary Development Association (KVDA)

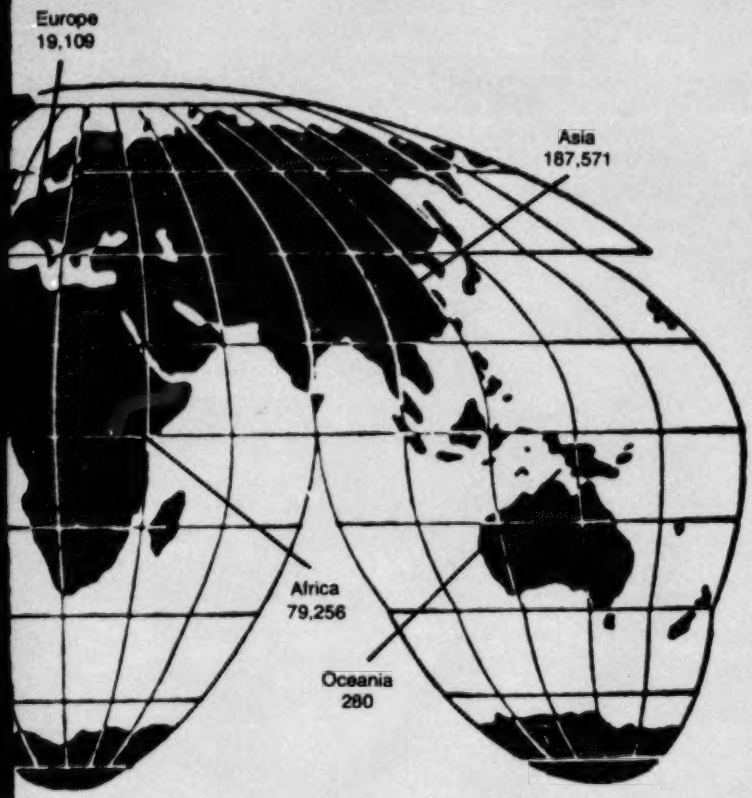
Indonesia: Badan Urusan Tenaga Kerdja Sukarela Indonesia (BUTSI)

Map of Development Services*



*Figures on the map represent the total number of participants in development services by region of origin, according to the *World Statistical Directory* for 1973, International Secretariat for Volunteer Service, Geneva, Switzerland (based on reports from noncommunist countries).

†Services listed include only those cooperating with the study.



SOCIAL AND TECHNICAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICES† (Continued)

Thailand:	Arsa Pattana: — Rural Development Volunteers Program (RDV) — Youth Development Volunteer Project (YDC) — Volunteer Leaders for Community Development (VLCD)
Canada:	Company of Young Canadians (CYC)
United Kingdom:	Community Service Volunteers (CSV)
USA:	Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA) Foster Grandparents, Retired Senior Volunteers, Senior Companion Program ACTION (FGP/RSVP) Service Corps of Retired Executives and Active Corps of Executives, ACTION (SCORE/ACE)

FOREIGN VOLUNTEER SERVICES†

Canada:	Canadian University Service Overseas, Ottawa (CUSO) World University Service Canada, Ottawa (WUSC)
Denmark:	Mellemfolkelight Samvirke (Danish Volunteer Service), Copenhagen (MSV)
Germany:	Deutscher Entwicklungsdienst (German Volunteer Service), Bonn (DED)
Israel:	International Youth Cooperation Center, Jerusalem (IYCC)
Netherlands:	Stichting Nederlandse Vrijwillingers (Association of Dutch Volunteers), The Hague (SNV)
USA:	ACTION: Peace Corps, Washington, D.C. (PC)
United Nations:	United Nations Volunteers, Geneva (UNV)

Notes

[1]United Nations Social and Economic Council, 1969, pp. 13-18.

[2]G.W. Griffin, "Out-of-School Education," paper presented to the Commonwealth Specialist Conference on Education in Rural Areas, Nairobi, Kenya, 1969, p. 1.

[3]UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, 1972, Table 2.7, p. 92ff.

[4]*Introducing the Graduate Volunteer Programs of Thammasat University*, Office of the Graduate Volunteer Programme, Thammasat University, Bangkok, Thailand, 1972.

[5]Article 1, Ministerial Order No. 99/Kpts/68, Ministry of Manpower, Jakarta, Indonesia, 1968.

[6]Peace Corps Act of September 22, 1961: PL89-293, Section 2.

[7]Ibid., Title III.

[8]Carl Rogers, *On Becoming a Person* (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1961), p. 56.

[9]Friedrich Edding, "Recurrent Education as a Cost Effective Strategy for Permanent Education."

[10]Declaration of Principles and Programme for Action Adopted by the Tripartite World Conference and Employment, Income Distribution and Social Progress, ILO World Employment Conference, Geneva, June 1976, p. 2.

[11]Abraham H. Maslow, *Motivation and Personality*, 2nd edition (New York: Harper and Row, 1970).

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[12]Edgar Owens and Robert Shaw, *Development Reconsidered* (Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 1974), p. 14.

[13]Saul H. Mendlovitz, editor, *On the Creation of a Just World Order: Preferred Worlds for the 1990's* (New York: The Free Press, 1975), p. xii.

[14]Abraham M. Sirkin, *Living with Interdependence* (Aspen, Colorado: Aspen Institute for Humanistic Studies, 1975), pp. 16-17.

[15]Samuel L. Parmar, "Self-reliant Development in an Interdependent World," in *Beyond Dependency* (Overseas Development Council, Washington, D.C., 1975).

[16]Lester R. Brown, *World Without Borders* (New York: Vintage Books, 1973), p. 343.

[17]Ali A. Mazrui, "World Culture and the Search for Human Consensus" in *On the Creation of a Just World Order* (New York: The Free Press, 1975), p. 3.

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Cover	Kenya National Youth Service
p. 4	ACTION: Peace Corps/Nepal
p. 6	National Youth Service Corps/Nigeria
p. 16	ACTION: Peace Corps/Kenya
p. 17	Kenya National Youth Service
p. 21	ACTION: Peace Corps/Benin
p. 24	ACTION: Foster Grandparents/Maryland
p. 26	Community Service Volunteers/United Kingdom